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THE PHYSICAL NEEDS OF THE GRAMMAR SCHOOL GIRL

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The motion of a heavenly body, say the astronomers, is the resultant of all the forces acting upon it. It may not be in the direction of any one of them. In a somewhat similar way the course that a teacher follows is the resultant of many forces; the direction in which she would travel is only one element in the way which she takes. More and more the grammar-school teacher is finding that the pressure, even from a point as far advanced as college, is transmitted beyond the high school and is making itself felt farther back in the grades. Every year more things must be done during the thirteen years—or twelve years of public school. Manifestly not all the additional work can be done in the last four grades.

The grammar-school teacher is influenced by what she learns of the situation of her pupils in their homes and in their community. It becomes evident that for a large number of these children there is now no schooling after the grammar grades. Whatever learning the greater part of these young people are to have the grammar school must give them. And this applies not to book-learning alone but also to instruction in cooking and sewing and similar subjects which children are apparently no longer taught at home.

It lies with especial weight upon a teacher's mind that the pupils before her are potently related to the state, and that one of

her first duties is to give them some instruction that shall furnish a basis of intelligence for the coming generation of common people with whom our political destiny must rest. Her standing with her superintendent may be largely influenced by the way in which she responds to some particular hobby of his; her general professional reputation depends to a great degree, she knows, upon the percentage with which her pupils pass their high-school examinations. With all these forces acting upon a teacher, what wonder that she sometimes finds she is moving in an orbit surprising even to herself? The importance of the physical preservation and upbuilding of her pupils is seldom indicated in the course of work laid out for a teacher, yet physical development is the most important element in the life of a child between the ages of eight and fourteen. Is not this what we should wish considered first in the case of our own children? Students of education and of health are saying now with impressive emphasis that the years between ten and fourteen are the critical period of a girl's whole life for the establishment of her physical well-being. Unquestionably this care of the health should be provided in the girl's own home, but it is evident that in the majority of instances the demand is not adequately met there. In such cases the girl's only hope for guidance is in her teacher. To meet this demand, however, a teacher needs to know just the existing conditions. Often this knowledge has been offered her neither in normal school nor in supplementary instruction at teachers' institutes nor by supervisors. She sees evidences of nervous strain in her girls and understands in a general way what it indicates. For definite information it is worth her while to read Professor John Tyler's *Growth and Education*. Here, in the chapter on the "Grammar School," she will learn that while the death rate is low at this time, morbidity is rising to its first maximum at about the age of thirteen. This is not a period when sickness and death are to be feared; it is rather a time of foundations, foundations either for health or for weakness:

> At this critical period of puberty every organ in the body is more or less modified. A girl's future happiness, if not her life itself, depends upon the successful accomplishment of this metamorphosis. She is making her

final preparation for Nature's second and most searching examination. Almost anything except readiness for this test can be postponed or even neglected without irremediable loss. But failure to meet Nature's requirements here means ruin, and a low mark means lifelong disabilities, if not weariness and pain. The test will soon be applied once for all and must be final. There is no appeal from the verdict and no forgiveness for those who even ignorantly have sinned against Nature's laws.

In the same chapter Professor Tyler tells us that the years before ten furnish opportunity to store up vitality against the lean years of puberty. The increased morbidity of girls later is attributed to poverty of blood, due to accumulation of waste material, or deterioration through loss of appetite or decrease of assimilative and digestive powers. Now may be the time when fatal diseases gain entrance into the system. In the upper classes in England, as a case in point, the death rate from consumption in girls between fifteen and twenty is three times that of boys. But the seeds of inability to resist disease are sown in earlier years:

The time to begin to take precautions is at seven or eight. Few seem to think that the health of the girls in the grammar grades needs any care or attention. There could hardly be a worse or more dangerous mistake.

We gain from Professor Tyler a conviction that there is upon some one a great responsibility for these girls—a responsibility that they are in no way qualified to take upon themselves. And when a teacher realizes that for the girls in her room, their future health and so their ability to become successful students or wage earners or housewives may be determined in these months, we may be sure that she will inquire what she can do about it. And what *can* she do?

In the first place she must carefully consider existing conditions for each girl—her physical condition, the conditions surrounding her in her home, the effect of school and its demands upon her.

The chapter on "Periodicity" in President Hall's *Adolescence,* or the little volume, *Sex in Education,* by Doctor Clarke, which aroused so much discussion a score of years ago, explain fully the demands which nature is making for each girl at her time of puberty. At this period she is developing an extremely important element of her being, in the eyes of nature her most

important system, one to which all other systems should give way. To this development a girl's nourishment and blood and vitality should be directed for many months. If the nurture that belongs to these organs is diverted from them they are stunted permanently and the result is irregularity of function, life-long suffering, a woman "not very strong," and incapable of meeting the demands which life has a right to make of her. And her fate is often settled while she is in the grammar school —you have the word of educator and biologist and physician for it. No less an authority than Dr. Engelmann maintained that the appalling burden of ill health upon American women could be greatly lessened by preventive measures at the time of puberty.

This is the physical condition, the anatomical condition, we might almost say, of the school girl at the time of puberty. What are the conditions surrounding her in her home? She requires generous nourishment now and it is especially important that waste matter should be completely eliminated from both her digestive and her respiratory systems, that her blood may be kept clean. Proper exercise and unlimited fresh air are literally vital. Suitable clothing also is especially important, such clothing as does not impede growth and movement, and properly protects the body from cold. It is an important question whether her home is looking out for these things, and also keeping her from unsuitable and exhausting amusements.

School conditions for pupils are, we expect, under the control of the teachers—or the superintendent—and ought to be made as favorable as possible for the adolescent girl. But we hear of pupils hardly in their teens who cannot sleep for fear of pending examinations, who have somehow become morbidly nervous in relation to their school and its requirements. They are almost hysterical if there is danger of a mark for tardiness or absence, or a paper that is a day late. A great many teachers sacrifice their pupils and work much evil at this time through their desire to report a high percentage of attendance. It is very important that a girl should be interested and prompt, but these are not the most important matters just now.

If the conditions for the adolescent girl are as critical as we

have tried to show, again we must ask, what can the teacher do about it? As soon as she has determined what is to be done she will naturally inquire what she can get the mother to do. The acquaintance between mothers and teachers varies much in different places, depending chiefly upon the individual teacher and upon the superintendent. In relation to the maturing girl there is the greatest need for confidence between the mother and the teacher. The mother should be shown what needs to be done and the tremendous importance of her doing it.

The very least that the mother can grant is an expression of her willingness that the teacher attempt to give the girl the direction that she ought to receive at home. I believe that the average mother would be glad to have these matters put rightly before her daughter; often a mother says, "I know I ought to tell my daughter about these things, but I keep putting it off because I do not know just what to say."

It will be the teacher's business, a somewhat difficult business, perhaps, to know what to say. Probably before the end of her grammar-school years the young woman has come under the periodic law, and periodic rest is requisite to her development. This means no less than that just as soon as a girl is governed by a wave of increasing and diminishing vitality, as she is for more than thirty years of her life, this rhythm must be respected. For at least two years she must give up two days in every month to complete rest, mental and physical. She ought to stay out of school for those two days, though sometimes a girl very strong in body and nerves goes with no immediate signs of harm. But she must be kept free from any exertion that will divert nutrition from developing organs. Staying out of school of course causes some interruption to her work, but her teacher knows that she can keep her standing nevertheless if she tries. Many a high-school girl is obliged to be absent two days every month during the latter part of her college preparation or, at least, is unable to do any effective work because of pain, and yet keeps front rank in her class. Even if her absences did affect the standing of the grammar-school girl they would be worth while because they are necessary

to the establishment for her of a vigor which many American women have missed. We all know women who are invalids because, their physicians tell them, they "are no more developed than are twelve-year old girls."

In many cases a girl would be better off if she could be taken from school entirely and given a year for physical development under right conditions. Frequently, however, it is quite as well for her to be in the regularity of school life under a judicious and watchful teacher because the care at home is not judicious.

The home conditions of a girl's life at this time it seems almost impossible for a teacher to affect, yet she can do much toward bringing the girl herself to know what is good for her in food and clothing and amusements. Physiology is one of the subjects that has been forced back from the high school to the grammar grades; and a teacher who has definitely in mind what her girls ought to know will find in her textbook many texts for teaching the facts of hygiene vital now when "every organ of the body is affected by the change." In mixed schools one lesson for the girls alone, easily arranged while the boys are occupied at an athletic meeting, for example, can give emphasis to the other instruction; in the case of the older girls they can be given an idea, so far as girls of that age can comprehend it, of the importance of the physical change that has come to them.

In relation to school work the teacher must consider in general what seems proved, that nervous and mental exertion at this time robs the developing organs of the blood and vitality needed for their perfecting even more than would great physical demands upon the undeveloped limbs of the child and for exactly the same reason.

> We need [says Professor Tyler] teachers with clear and watchful eyes who can lighten worry, fret, and weariness, and can see when leniency is needed and when firmness is kindness, who know when not to notice a bad error or recitation or even a day's work; who can pass over or advise a day's absence from school now and then.

Though there are so many demands upon the mind and the minutes of every teacher, yet we have faith in her and reason for the faith that she will find time and strength to do at any rate the duty that is most worth while.

AN OUTLINE FOR THE PRESENTATION OF A COUNTRY—AFRICA

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In the teaching of any grand division, it is essential that the physiographic factors be clearly outlined and, then, that the responses which organic functions make to these be understood. The responses to a certain sum of physical surroundings are constant; and, as between two situations, a variation of one or more terms of the sum must account for the differences in the life elements. An analysis of the physiographic features and their resultant effects upon life can be made an aim in geography work. The fulfilment of such an objective would free many courses of study from excessive repetition, would give a unity to the geography work, would make the work of the various grades more progressive, and would furnish a logical basis for the study of the grand divisions so that they may be approached not as unknown subjects but as continuations of a former study under new combinations of controls. I am not offering a panacea for all ills, but the results of a large number of trials make me assert with considerable confidence that the idea herein presented, if undertaken, of course, in good faith, will be helpful to the teacher, and much more will be contributive to interest and knowledge and mental exercise in the pupils. The tenacity with which the terms "torrid" and "hot belt" are applied to all areas lying between the two tropics is an indication of an ignorance of the other controls of climate. It is natural to begin with sun insolation as the first factor in climatic condition, but never to grow away from the elemental notion is deplorable. By easy stages, topography, migration of wind belts, wind direction, etc., are to be added, and a comprehensive view of the variations of the climates, even in the equatorial regions, is to be obtained. The system presented in this paper is directed to the analysis of the physiographic factors and the responses resulting therefrom, then

to the synthesis of these same factors, with their more complicated resultants. For this a series of eleven maps is used, as follows:

I. Map showing the outline with parallels and meridians. Shape and position are the subjects of discussion.
II. Map of topography.
III. Map of winds for January.
IV. Map of winds for June. Maps III and IV show the limits of migration of the wind belts of the world.
V. Map of rainfall.
VI. Map of soils.

This ends the presentation of the physiographic factors of Africa. Up to this time the discussion of the vegetation, the animals, and especially mankind, has been mainly inference, based upon our knowledge of certain combinations of physiographic factors and their accompanying responses. Our inferences are verified or not in the maps which follow:

VII. Map of vegetation.
VIII A and B. Maps of vegetable products.
IX. Map of animals.
X. Map of commerce.
XI. Map of population.

If the deductions are verified, as they should be in the majority of cases, there will be gained a working knowledge of the factors of geographic science, and a background for all subsequent study. On the other hand, when deductions do not accord with fact, there is afforded a chance to investigate the discrepancy, a form of exercise that is of value. The double process of deduction, and later the presentation of the facts, serve as checks on the work. The source of the variance may be an error in fact or may be accounted for by fashion or by custom. Under any circumstances, the system does not allow one to go very far afield from the truth, although generalization must play a large part at this stage. A few years ago I presented[1] this scheme, using South America as an example. The present paper enlarges upon the former, fills in certain vacancies of treatment and supplements the outline by applying the principles to Africa.

MAP I—OUTLINE, WITH PARALLELS AND MERIDIANS. Upon

[1] *Journal of Geography*, IV, 273 (1905).

any wall map the outline is sufficiently clear to read, but few wall maps give any prominence to the parallels and meridians. The subordination of the lines of latitude and longitude is a necessity if clearness of outline or detail is desired. The wall map must be adapted to many uses, but it generally brings into prominence the physical or political subdivisions of a country; and those maps are the most successfully used which emphasize an essential feature to the neglect of others. However, latitude and longitude are elements in geography, and special emphasis must be made in order to direct the pupil's attention to them. In Map I a study of the outline and position of Africa is made and only outline and position is presented. The stages of the presentation follow:

The facts of this map are (1) regular outline with no large estuary, (2) an extent in latitude corresponding with that from Raleigh, North Carolina, to Buenos Aires, (3) an extent in longitude such that five time meridians, 15 degrees west to 45 degrees east, cut the country. The time meridian of London passes through the western bulge and the time meridian of Vienna along the Nile to the extreme south. Longitude is used merely for position. The inferences are these:

A. *Climate.*—Map I furnishes us with two climatic controls, latitude and distance from the sea. The deduction, based on latitude and the inclination of the sun's rays, would be that the climate is for the most part warm. This inference, if latitude alone is the determining cause of climatic states, should be correct. The introduction of the other controls of climate shown on later maps indicates that latitudinal lines are not boundaries of climatic zones. A second statement would be that there is a great deal of rain, and this we base on the capacity of warm air for moisture and a recognition of the influences of the planetary wind circulation in equatorial regions.

B. *Soil.*—No evident relationship. However, frequently a fiord coast is an indication of glaciation and therefore glacial soils.

C. *Vegetation.*—Basing our statement on the knowledge of the vegetation of the home country or the vegetation zones as there shown, we may expect a luxuriant growth. This approaches

a climatic control more nearly than a position control, but it is not easy to keep the two apart.

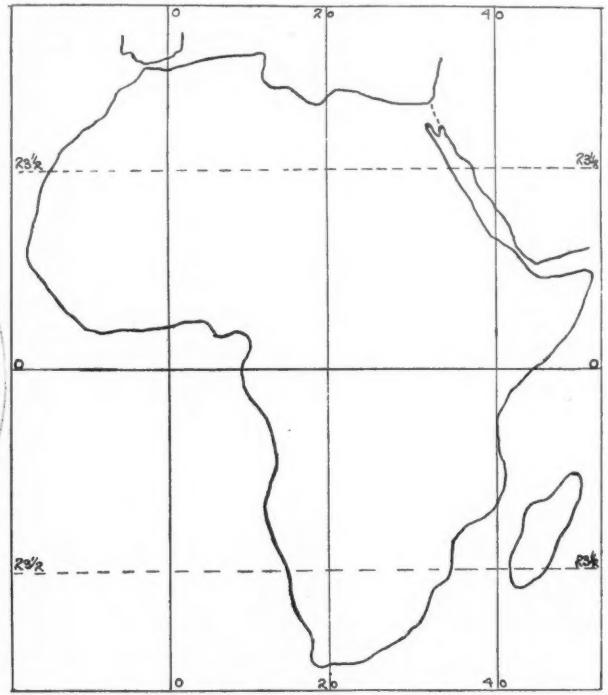
D. *Animals.*—No positive law of distribution dependent upon outline is known. However, latitude may be a barrier to migration and this again approaches closely to the climatic control.

E. *Population.*—The outline shows no indentations which are apt to be centers of population, and if this feature was the only control, the population would be sparse. As interiors of continents are secondary to coast centers and are generally subsequent in development, our conclusion may be made for the whole of Africa. In regard to the character of the people, if civilization in its varying degrees has been spoken of in terms of latitude, a statement to the effect that the people are not very far along in civilized customs is admissible.

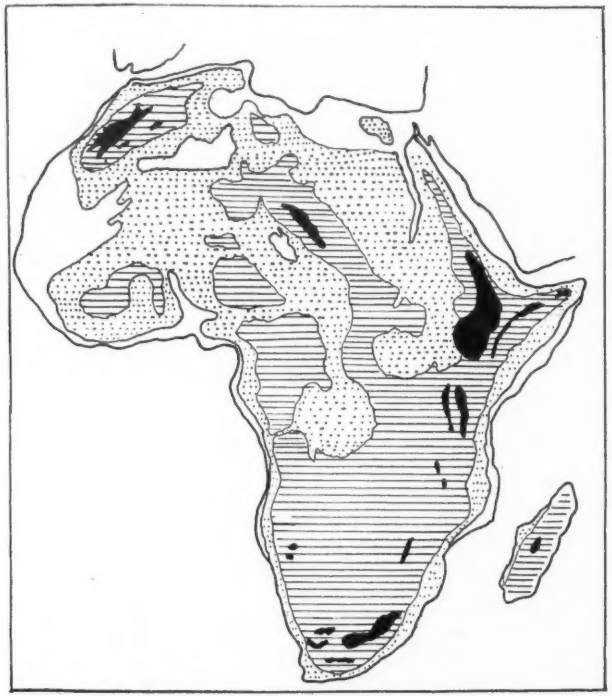
F. *Commerce.*—Commerce and population are to a large degree complementary. Commerce is developed by harbors, and if it depended upon re-entrants alone our conclusion in regard to the commercial status of a country should be at once definite and accurate. The commerce of Africa, so far as this factor is concerned, is a negligible quantity. It may be found later that some ports and cities are developed on a regular coast line, as, for example, Iquique, Chile. The reason for this situation, which would appear in the course of the development, emphasizes the leading factor of the city's growth.

MAP II.—TOPOGRAPHY. Now are added the facts of relief. The fourfold division, which may be designated mountains, highlands, uplands, and lowlands, as shown on the map, is a convenient one to use as one or more of the forms is within the experience of pupils and they are sufficiently general in character to embrace all sorts of variations, yet specific enough to be differentiated. The inferences made during the study of Map I are to be modified if need be by the facts of this map and new inferences made from the additional data.

A. *Climate.*—Two more controls of climate, altitude and slope exposure, are added by this map. The general statement of an extensive warm area in Africa, based on position, has to be changed to meet this new control. Furthermore, mountains are



MAP I.—OUTLINE MAP, SHOWING PARALLELS AND MERIDIANS



MAP II.—TOPOGRAPHIC MAP

Above 6,500 feet
From 1,650 to 6,500
From 650 to 1,650
From 0 to 650

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regions of heavy rainfall; they act as deflectors of wind, so that on one side of the mountain there may be moist regions and on the other arid regions. To determine this accurately, wind direction must be known.

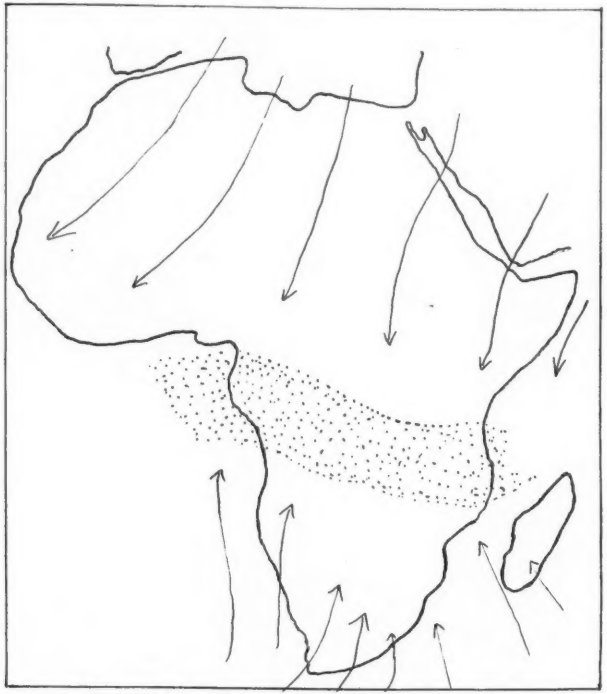
B. *Soil.*—Mountains are in the process of denudation, consequently they contain but little soil. Most commonly, metals and minerals are exposed in these regions; this is, in part, the resultant of the erosive processes which shapes the peak or chain. Lowlands are generally being aggraded, from their position, and the rocks are being buried with fertile soils. Mining is not possible to any large degree except where rivers, in the natural process of erosion, deposit in their beds precious minerals, as gold and diamonds. Between these two extremes of topography, the uplands and highlands may be expected to have coatings of soil, the amount varying roughly in inverse proportion to the height.

C. *Vegetation.*—In all localities, Alpine conditions may be experienced by the ascent of some lofty mountain. In equatorial Africa, a height of 15,000 feet would be equivalent to a latitude of 60 degrees. There is, however, this advantageous feature of high latitudes over high altitudes, namely, a longer duration of sunlight during the growing season. Vegetation would be more luxuriant in lowlands than in highlands. Here again there is demanded a restatement of the deductions made under Map I so as to accord with the topographic factor.

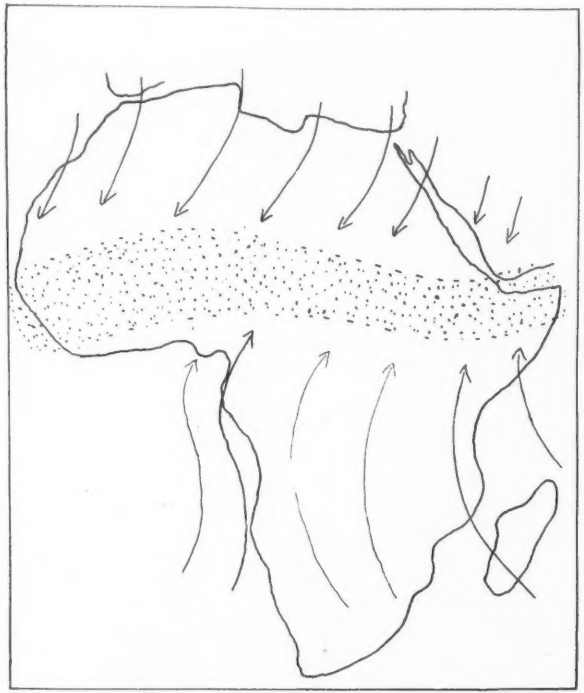
D. *Animals.*—Mountain sides offer in many instances good pasturage. The open country is essential to some animals as the antelope, zebra, etc., and high mountains are inhabited by species of goat and ibexes. Again, the mountain chain is apt to be a barrier to types, so that the fauna on opposite sides may be different.

E. *Population.*—Mountain chains may separate peoples by acting as barriers, may form political boundaries, and may promote social unity and independence through protection (Abyssinia). On the other hand the low countries must contain the trade centers and be the more densely populated.

F. *Commerce.*—All forms of earth surface promote or hinder trade: the mountain in proportion to its inaccessibility restrains



MAP III.—WINDS FOR JANUARY
Dotted areas show ascending currents. Arrows fly with the wind



MAP IV.—WINDS FOR JULY
Dotted areas show ascending currents. Arrows fly with the wind

it; plains and valleys facilitate transportation and thereby stimulate industry and manufacturing.

MAPS III AND IV.—THE WIND MAPS FOR JANUARY AND JULY. On these maps are shown the wind system of Africa and the limits of the migration of the wind belts.

A. *Climate.*—Winds are transporters of climates. Winds which blow from the water to the land bring to it a marine climate and moisture; winds blowing over the land are drying winds and if they blow from the interior they bear the extremes of the continental type of climate. In regions of ascending currents, warmth and moisture result; in regions of descending currents, we find cooling temperatures and prevailing clear weather. The combination now of the effects of outline, topography, and winds gives a clue to the climate of the various parts of Africa.

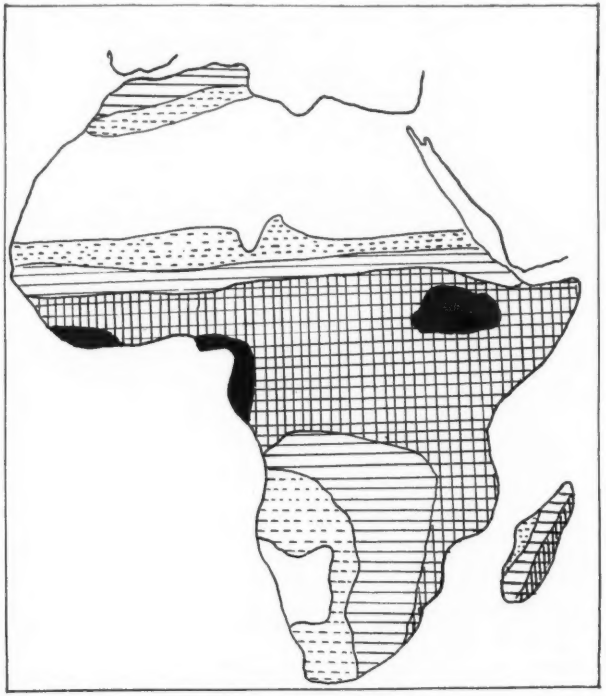
B. *Soil.*—Where winds absorb moisture, sand and salt may be expected. Sand will be found also on the leeward sides of mountains. On the windward sides of the mountains, especially at their bases, there will be much fertile soil. Sand will travel in the direction of the prevailing winds.

C. *Vegetation.*—The winds affect vegetation especially by the dispersal of seeds and, in individual cases, by shifting the centers of gravity to leeward. In regions of ascending currents the vegetation is luxuriant; in regions of parching winds, sparse; in regions of moist winds, moderate. These latter effects may be considered as resulting from rainfall, but the wind movement largely controls the precipitation.

D. *Animals.*—No noteworthy effects.

E. *Population.*—No noteworthy effects apart from such as are instanced under commerce.

F. *Commerce.*—Winds affect commerce by determining sailing routes. This cannot be said to have a large valuation today in the time of steamships. The direction of the prevailing wind in any locality determines in some measure the harbor privilege. A wind blowing toward the land and into an estuary may make an otherwise good harbor undesirable as a place of safety. This difficulty is overcome to a large degree by breakwaters, as at Algiers.



MAP V.—RAINFALL MAP

Under 10 inches annually
10 to 20 inches
20 to 40 inches
40 to 80 inches
Over 80 inches

MAP VI.—SOIL MAP

Sand. Alluvium. • Gold. — Coal. x Copper. c Silver. v Diamonds

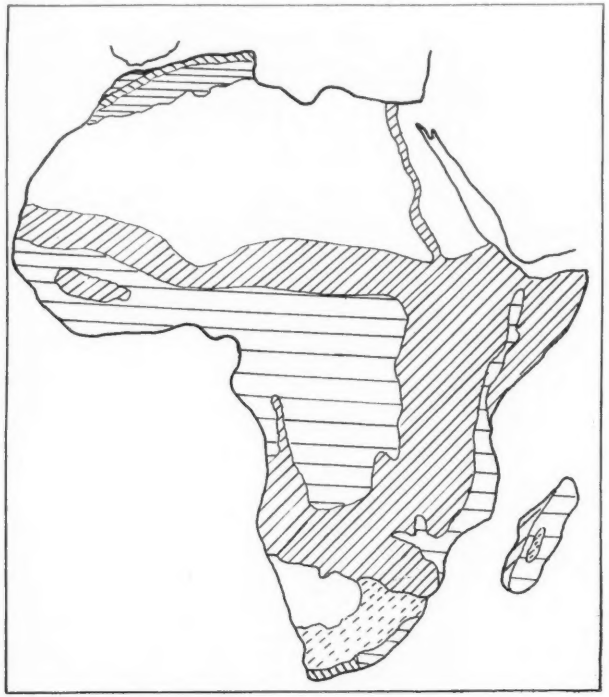
EXERCISE

The rainfall controls have been considered. A summary of these may be introduced at this time, and, if they are correctly interpreted, a rainfall map may be made by the pupils which should approach closely to the one to be presented later. On an outline map of Africa, plot the rainfall, using a fourfold classification; the regions of heavy rainfall (over 80 inches annually), the regions of moderate rainfall (20 to 80 inches), the regions of sparse rainfall (10 to 20 inches), and the regions of little or no rainfall (less than 10 inches). When this is done the rainfall map may be presented for comparison.

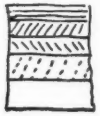
MAP V.—RAINFALL. This is the last of the climatic elements to be presented and the climatic condition of Africa in general terms ought to be known. It is possible to introduce the rivers of Africa at this point to good advantage. The sources of the rivers are in the mountains as the mountains are the regions of rainfall. The size of rivers depends on the amount of rainfall. The floods of rivers result from the seasonal migration of the rainfall belts as in the case of the Nile. When highlands approach near the coast, as in the case of most of Africa, falls are apt to block the river for sailing craft.

A. *Soil.*—Soil is transported by rivers and forms floodplains and deltas. The regions of interior drainage are salt, as Tchad. Mountains are in their early stages devoid of soil cover. The wearing down of the mountains is a natural mining process and yields gold and diamonds in river deposits.

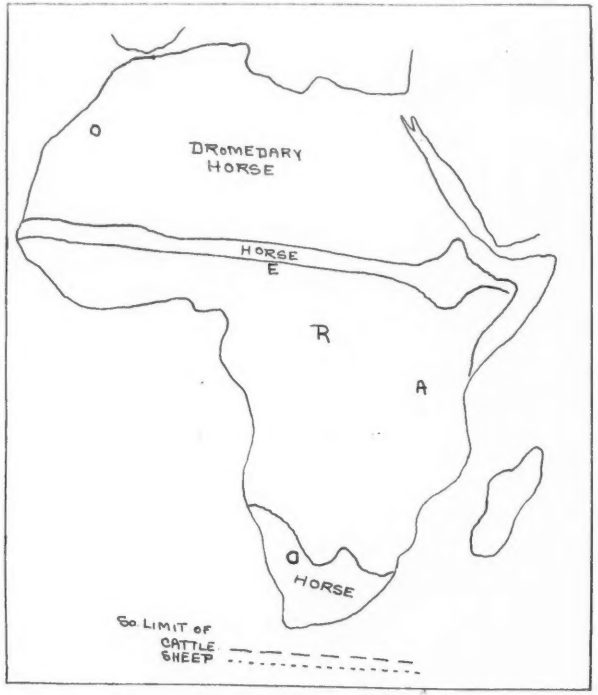
B. *Vegetation.*—Climate probably influences vegetation more than any other factor. The high temperatures and heavy rains produce such luxuriant growths that clearing for agriculture is not profitable. Under more temperate conditions staple foods may be cultivated. Less than ten inches of rain annually makes vegetation a negligible quantity; when the rainfall is between ten and twenty inches, the vegetation is sparse; more than twenty inches and less than eighty gives the best conditions for cultivation of crops. Within the limits of the rainfall suitable for agriculture, an increase of rainfall is conducive to a larger yield per acre. Kinds of plants may, in the rough, be determined by



MAP VII.—VEGETATION MAP



Tropical Forests and Cultivable Lands
Sub-tropical; Grass Plains
Temperate; Firs and Pines prevailing
Temperate; Grass Lands, part needing irrigation
Desert



MAP IX.—ANIMAL MAP

O. Ostrich. A. Antelope. R. Rhinoceros. E. Elephant

the amount of water; there are the drouth plants, as the cactus; water plants, as the flags, lillies, and willows; and intermediate conditions of plant growths, ranging from Alpine carpets, prairies, deciduous forests to broad-leafed evergreens.

C. *Animals.*—Climate cannot be said to be the direct determining cause of the distribution of animals, although there are animals which must fall under such a factor of distribution, and isothermal lines are barriers to migration. Animal increase is limited by the food supply and animal migration is also so limited. Vegetation is the important function in the consideration of most animals.

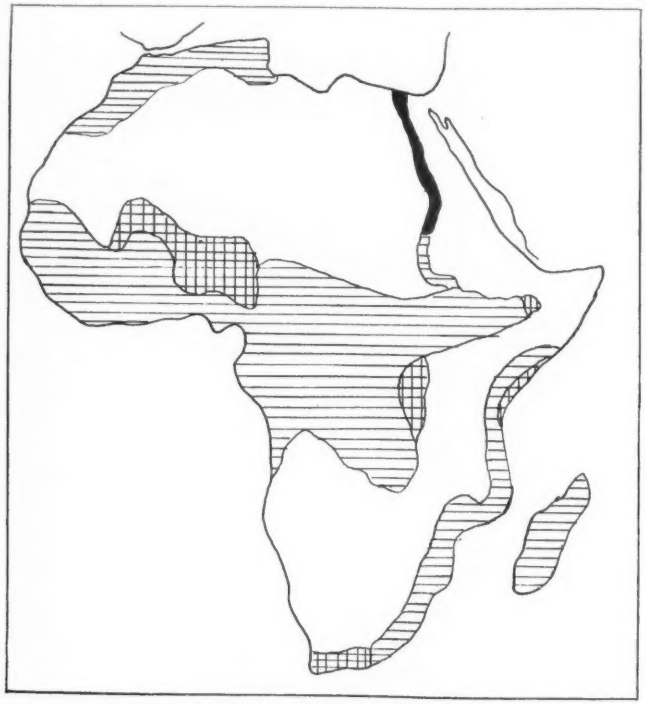
D. *Population and commerce.*—Responses are many but not important enough to find a place here.

Map VI.—Soil. A soil map may show the larger tracts of alluvial soil as flood plains and deltas, sandy areas and the location of the mineral products.

A. *Vegetation.*—Sandy soils do not retain moisture and are therefore not adapted to much plant growths. Alluvial plains are fertile. On leeward sides of sandy areas vegetation may be destroyed by drifting sand.

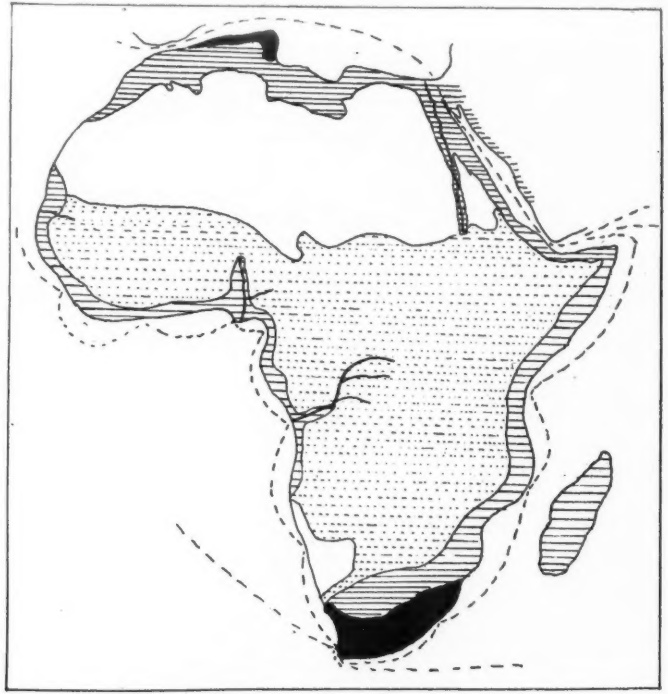
B. *Population and commerce.*—Minerals attract people to almost uninhabitable mountains. Certain minerals in the process of mountain destruction are borne by rivers and deposited in river gravels and loams, as gold and diamonds, and these influence the distribution of population and are of commercial value. Around coal outcrops population gathers. The sandy wastes are devoid of a settled population except here and there where water issues from the earth. In lesser ways soil and rocks affect people by furnishing or limiting building material.

All the physiographic factors have now been presented. The remaining maps show the responses to these and the lessons from this time on are in the main a verification or a correction of the inferences made. Before the next map is presented, it is possible to introduce an exercise which may also serve as a review. From the factors already discussed which influence vegetation, construct a vegetation map. This map will of necessity show quantity, not kinds.



MAP X.—POPULATION MAP

Over 500 to a square mile
50 to 100
10 to 50
Less than 10



MAP XI.—COMMERCIAL MAP

Regions of Large Commerce
Regions of Important Commerce
Regions Commercially Undeveloped
Desert or Unproductive Regions
Navigable Rivers
Steamer Lines

MAP VII.—VEGETATION. Introduced for verification of statements deduced from the conditions.

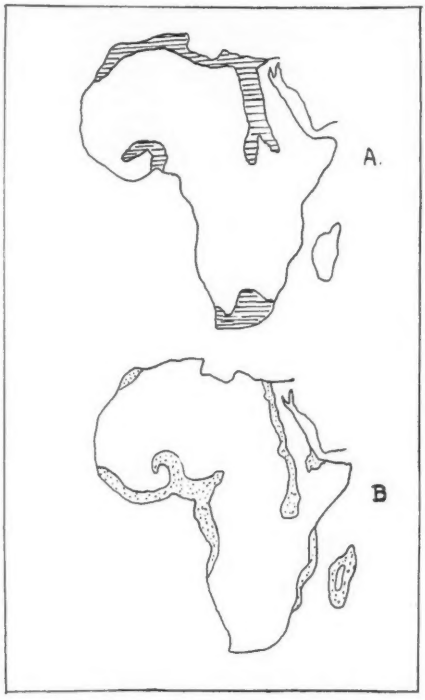
MAP VIIIA AND VIIIB. These maps may show the areas where wheat and rice are raised. Two forms of exercise may be used in this connection. From similarity of conditions of growth, kinds may be located, and from location of kinds, the condition of the climate may be inferred. For example: Rice requires 60 to 80 degrees for ripening, an abundance of moisture and the nourishment of low alluvial lands within the tropics. This is the condition of growth. From what has been found out concerning the climate of Africa, locate where rice may grow. Compare with Map VIIIB. Again, given Map VIIIB, infer the conditions of the climate and soil in those regions of rice-culture shown and note how the inferences agree with the conclusions already reached. The same sort of exercise may be carried out for sugar cane, cotton, coffee, wheat, and dates.

MAP IX.—ANIMALS. This map shows but a limited number of features, namely, the ranges of cattle and beasts of burden and the locations of a few typical native animals. In this portion of the subject it is well to omit much generally included under this heading. Large grazing areas and the distribution of wild animals which yield a product of commercial value are legitimate topics. In order to avoid confusion, but two or three of the wild animals should be mentioned. The items that determine the distribution and the increase of animal life have been considered under previous maps; there remains now the restatement in terms of the facts presented. Mountain ranges, rivers and arms of the sea, isothermal lines, deserts and forests act as barriers limiting the range of animals.

MAP X.—POPULATION. Before this map is presented, the construction of a population map may be tried by the pupils after a review of the factors determining the distribution. The facts are obtained for comparison afterwards from Map X. A study of the native population, the true negroes of Central Africa, and the related types, as the Negroids and the Bushmen, as well as the Arab invaders, may be introduced here if desired.

MAP XI.—COMMERCE. As before, a commercial map may be

constructed by the pupils in anticipation of the facts. The effects of elevation upon industry and commerce may be seen in the plateau region of Africa; of lack of rainfall in the Kalahari Desert and the Sahara; of alluvial plains in the Nile Valley; of



MAP VIII A.—DISTRIBUTION OF WHEAT
MAP VIII B.—DISTRIBUTION OF RICE

underground waters in parts of the Sahara; of minerals in the gold and diamonds of South Africa; of animals in the grazing and ostrich culture of South Africa; and of location in Tripoli's caravan trade. In further explanation of certain conditions, it should be added that a bad government is detrimental to commerce as is illustrated by the case of Morocco.

The presentation of the political divisions follows naturally

the study of the larger view. It is generally the custom to take up in some detail and order each country of a continent. In the presentation by means of the maps nearly every feature of value in the study of any one of the subdivisions may be presented, consequently there remains nothing new but to give a name to certain sections of the continent and to explain one or two social, political, or historical phases which have been instrumental in the development. Thus, the study of the individual countries, as Egypt, South Africa, Abyssinia, and so on, may be now used as a review or an exercise.

Some avoidance of names of cities, rivers, etc., has been exercised in this paper. This was intentional in order to satisfy a double demand. In the first place, in the great uncertainty concerning what names ought to be taught and what names ought to be omitted, I did not desire to dictate; again, inasmuch as the plan herein presented is applicable to other grand divisions and as well to limited portions of them, I wished to furnish an outline as free from specific references to Africa as possible. The teacher knows to a great degree what names she is expected to use and these are easily fitted into the study at the proper time.

THE KINDERGARTEN PROGRAMME. II

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THE PRESENT SITUATION

The emphasis which Froebel placed upon unfoldment caused him to invent the geometric series of the gifts with their logically unfolding use. In these sequences the "forms of knowledge," "forms of beauty," and "forms of life" following the canon of unfoldment are to reveal to the child such principles as "inner and outer," "part and whole," "unity and diversity." The plays and games are chosen to reveal similar truths.

The kindergartner who places her emphasis on adjustment as Nature's method of enabling the young human being to find himself and his powers by his reactions on the objective world asks whether he has a use and need for these geometric forms in carrying out play purposes of his own. She questions the beauty form sequence and tries to make it the outcome of the child's appreciation and feeling rather than something imposed by herself without his inner concurrence. She wants it to be the outcome of his volition and not the result of a mechanical obedience to dictation. This type of kindergartner in choosing representative plays asks herself not only, "What truth does this symbolize?" but, "Does it fall in line with the child's interests; and does it come close to him through his experience?"

The application of the principles of adjustment causes us to look on knowledge, such knowledge as that of the interrelation of geometric planes or solids, as first, an increment of efforts to adjust, and second, as a tool for new adjustment. For example, a child first discovers a law of balance in mere piling of blocks; this new knowledge becomes now his tool in the execution of further purposes.

A study of children's activities shows that adult sequences of thought are not always logic to a child's mind. To be true he must proceed on premises of his own—premises of his own dis-

covering—not on those we force upon him. Through the sequences that he himself has responded to actively, or evolved for himself, he proceeds to sequential thinking. His realities, his truths must be won for himself by his own efforts to adjust; we can help him to short cuts, by helping him to the right premises, and we can help him to the right premises only by controlling the presentations, or stimuli from which he derives them through his own self-activity. We herein affirm and reaffirm the validity, nay more, as most central and essential this principle of Froebel's psychology—*self-activity* which becomes *creative activity*.

The first order of childish invention lies in the free making of the "copies" of things with which the child is familiar and which have meaning for him. Through these play-creations children discover principles of construction and strengthen form and number concepts, before they are ready for gift or occupation exercises which deal with the *systematization* of form and number concepts; such systematizations or classifications as are found in conventional geometric sequences in block building, tablet, stick and ring laying, sewing, and folding.

Children are impelled by the force of their growing ideas to strive for wholeness. This Froebel fully recognized as a "striving for unity," but his way of reaching that wholeness was sometimes in accord with a child's natural process, and sometimes quite an unchildlike course of thinking. Experiences of our earlier years of kindergarten teaching showed a line of cleavage, sharp and distinct, between the ready response to suggestions or directions that meet a natural impulse, and that mechanical and listless following of orders to do that which was not suited to the child's concepts or interests. Dr. Dewey points out the necessity of recognizing in the child's intellectual progress the same conditions that hold true for an adult. The child's particular ends, problems, points of departure, and interests the adult has probably passed by, but both child and grown person achieve by the same type of mental action.

No one seriously questions that, with an adult, power and control are obtained through the realization of personal ends and problems through personal selection of means and materials which are relevant, and through

personal adaptation and application of what is thus selected, together with whatever of experimentation and of testing is involved in the effort. Practically every one of these conditions of increase of power for the adult are denied for the child. For him problems and aims are determined by another mind. For him material that is relevant and irrelevant is selected in advance by another mind, and, upon the whole, there is such an attempt made to teach him a ready-made method for applying his material to the solution of his problems, or the reaching of his ends, that the factor of experimentation is at the minimum. With the adult we unquestioningly assume that an attitude of personal inquiry, based on the possession of a problem which interests and absorbs, is a necessary precondition of mental growth. With the child we assume that the precondition is rather the willing condition to submit to any problem and material presented from without. *Alertness* is our ideal in one case; *docility* in the other.[1]

There is a widely accepted type of programme which is stamped with this attempt to select ends, problems, and methods to such a degree that the values of experimentation and discovery are depreciated. The plan of work for one week which is given below may serve to give point to this contention.

GENERAL TOPIC: COMING AND GOING, WITH SPECIAL EMPHASIS PLACED ON THE RETURN

The child's own coming and going is to be more definitely brought before him. Talks will be given on the coming and going of mother and father; also talks on the coming and going of the seasons, the flowers, birds, etc. Among all of the childrens' experiences thus far the most significant has been that of estrangement and return.

STORY: THE THREE BEARS

Bring out the following points: the home of the bears and the home of the child, the straying from home and returning to home. The child leaves home and comes back, the bears leave home and come back. The little girl wanted to go home; she finds her mother. Bring out also the difference in the size of the bears; objects in their house, etc.

TALKS

I. Use natural objects within reach. Flowers; notice color and formations of golden rod, color and dark center of "Black-eyed Susan," color and structure of "butter and eggs," star shape of aster.

II. Develop "A Little Boy's Walk"[2] as preliminary to the "Pigeon

[1] John Dewey, *Psychology and Social Practice*, pp. 13, 14, The University of Chicago Press.

[2] Emilie Paulsson, *Finger Plays*.

House." Tell poem as a story. Draw picture on board. Put emphasis on "telling mother." Encourage children to share their experiences. Develop tendency to communicate experiences.

III. Give period to learning words and music. Suggest games that bear upon the idea of estrangement and return, but do not make idea conscious to the child.

Games: Visiting, wandering, hiding, ball games, travelers, lads and lassies, sunbeams, steam train.

MONDAY

Gift exercise.—First Gift: Review movements; round and round, forward and back, right and left. Develop movement up and down in a rhythmic manner. Give children a chance to use strings of things they have brought in up and down exercises. Children asked to tell the names of all things that *go* up and down, that *are* up and down. Develop attention. Test children's attention to what you say by such games as "Simon says thumbs up."

Develop new color. Count balls of different colors. Find out how many children can really count. Play hiding ball in connection with color exercises.

Occupation.—Clay modeling. Make balls and flatten them out. Cut edges with a cake-cutter. Make indented line near edge around each clay circle. Children model two balls of equal size and place on this plaque. Make a good-sized oblong plaque. Divide into five equal parts, by means of lines made with the finger. Make balls, two at a time, and place on the divisions of the oblong in the same manner as on the circular one. Let the child count the balls and spaces.

TUESDAY

Gift exercise.—Third Gift: Cut cube into two parts, then put together again. Repeat. Refer to house made for Thumbling, and play cube is house. Furnish bedroom. This room chosen as being perhaps the most familiar room to child. Make a bed, return to cube. Make a chair, return to cube. Make table, sofa, washstand, wardrobe, etc., returning to cube after each form. Let children make anything else we have in the house.

End lesson by going over all the forms given in the series of bedroom furniture, without, however, going back to the cube after each form.

End with cube *illustrating the principle of estrangement and return.*

Occupation.—Sewing. Use card having three concentric circles, or card having three circles in a row, differing in size. Use one color or three. Emphasis placed on difference in size. Refer to big and little objects in this connection. Sand may be used for house in this period if preferred.

WEDNESDAY

Second Gift.—Have large gift in sight. Give each child box containing either spheres, cubes, or cylinders differing in size, using three sizes. As teacher calls for different forms have children hold them up. Have children bring forms to teacher and place them in three rows upon the floor: a row of spheres of different sizes, a row of cylinders of different sizes, and a row of cubes of different sizes. These forms may also be seen in rows of three, a sphere, a cube, and a cylinder in each row. Redistribute the forms and let each child arrange independently, according to size.

Play matching game, with the following words:

Use your eyes, use your eyes,
Look carefully now and see,
And if your ball is the size of mine
Roll it across to me.

Use nests of boxes, tin cans, spools of different sizes for this work. Main point to be brought out is that of difference in size.

Occupation.—Pasting. Paste a row of circles on an oblong piece of paper. Count circles. Tell what other things have the same color. Take completed work home as a bookmark for mother.

THURSDAY

Gift exercise.—Third Gift. Use fifth-gift boxes, second-gift cubes, and ordinary third gifts. Divide according to child's suggestion. Make the same furniture built on Tuesday, using three sizes of blocks. Contrast in size is the point to be brought out. Re-tell story of "Three Bears" in this connection.

Occupation.—Sewing, or milk weed exercise. If sewing, finish card. Milk weed exercise: Use pod for little boat. Have children make mast and sail of stick and paper, and sail pod on dish of water. In this connection recall traveling experiences.

Observe resemblances of seeds to fish. Give each child a seed and let him watch its expansion in the sunlight. Let the children blow seeds from the window. Tell the children how the wind carries the seeds.

FRIDAY

Gift exercise.—Rings. Contrast in size is the point to be brought out. Give three rings of different sizes. Let child arrange as he chooses. Dictate form of concentric rings. Have fingers *jump* into large, small, and middle-sized rings. Have children tell where rings are, making a complete statement each time for the sake of developing language. Have small and middle-sized rings placed outside of large rings.

Arrange in vertical row, in horizontal row. Replace in form of concentric rings.

Give three more of each size and repeat figure, forming straight row

of concentric rings. Give exercises on "in and out." Alternate front and back placing.

Occupation.—Stringing. Use a variety of natural objects, or, represent with natural objects some previous arrangement of rings or circles. Show connection between natural objects and conventional types.

Our criticism upon this programme is that it shows tendencies that are opposed to a child's process of growth.

1. The topic for the week is based upon a principle (estrangement and return) which, while perfectly true and absolutely fundamental, is one that needs no week of special application. It is as wide as life. Its meaning is sure to come to us and the children *in the day's work,* without resorting at a given week to special impressions in the shape of talks, stories, songs, games, and gifts and occupations.

2. A too obvious knowledge standard. Connections are sought by means of similarity in number, form, size, and color rather than by related meanings, such meanings as a child can appreciate while he explores the significant and relevant aspects of things in such plays as that described by Baldwin[3] in which the older child plays mother to the younger who impersonates the baby.

An objection to this method is that five-year-old children have outgrown the stage when mere quality or appearance, apart from function, has any charm. Similarities and contrasts of these qualities *per se* will not hold attention but when used as signs of function as clues to meanings, as pegs to hang their ideas on they are distinctly necessary and fill their higher place in the educative process.

In trying to teach large and small, red and blue, etc., we are underestimating a child's power. He is ready to use these qualities in play arrangements and representations drawn from life and with reference to life.

3. Play is at a minimum. Spontaneity is at a minimum.

4. There is too much talking about the plays as a means of focusing attention on the play, or of giving knowledge. If the

[3] J. Mark Baldwin, *Social and Ethical Interpretations.*

play is well chosen it brings its own response. Otherwise it is not a play, "The image constrains the child to play."

5. Adventitious exercises are indulged in to give focus to attention on details of form or number that have apparently no inherent interest, such as, "Have the fingers jump into the large rings, the small, the middle sized." This is a most pernicious teaching vice.

6. Artificial and meaningless connections are emphasized, such as the three different sizes in rings, balls, cubes, spheres, and sewed circles with the three bears of the story.

7. A forced return to the fundamental form of the cube after each piece of furniture is built quite opposed to the natural movement of the child's mind is insisted upon for the sake of impressing the fundamental unity of all structural forms, as well as the principle of "estrangement and return."

To sum up the contentions on which we make the above strenuous objections let us see the power which a four-and-a-half-year-old brings to the kindergarten with him. He has explored the world of form and size, texture, density, and weight by shaking, throwing, biting, and pounding everything within reach. He has set up objects and knocked them down, pulled things apart and put them together, piled them in heaps, and distributed them. He has felt all roundabout the furniture, doorways, stairways, windows, and implements in his own home until he has some apprehension of the long and short, round and flat, rectangular and curved, rough and smooth, high and low, in terms of his own muscular movement as well as by his eyes.

He has played with boxes, blocks, spools, balls, apples, sticks, books, sand, and earth. He has therefore much acquaintance with the qualities of things and has a basis for selection in his new life of representative play. He comes into the kindergarten in the full tide of his energy. His dominating impulse is the desire to make a record of his transforming power, on the thing with which he is surrounded. This he does through imitation and play with the motor force of ideas and images to shape the form with a personal stamp. We believe the above programme is in general thwarting, underestimating, and artificial, aiming to

teach what is already known, drawing far-fetched principles out of bare concrete forms and contrast, and in part reversing the normal mental movement.

We see children in the play period of growth continually taking bits of their experience, and piecing them together, living them over, informing them with imagination. By this means they get the meaning of that which is fragmentary, and create fuller wholes.

Children exploit and explore environment in their adjustments in the shape of question, experiment, imitation, and invention. Immediate experience is the field of their operations. People and their doings furnish stimuli of prime interest. These social play adjustments are not only of prime interest to them but of prime value. It is life that children want, and that abundantly.

Dr. Dewey points out that the statement so frequently made that education means "drawing out" does not sufficiently recognize that children from four to eight years of age need no drawing out, being already "spilling over with activities of all kinds," and that we are neither to repress nor humor these crude impulsive activities, expressive of correspondingly crude ideas and interests, but are to organize and direct them. This is an excellent statement with which to combat a notion prevalent among the more orthodox that the modern view of instinct and of impulsive activity in general is that it is to have its fling regardless of consequences. A more scientific attitude toward the place of instinct in the upward movement of the little human individual is that it gives a powerful push in certain directions, such as imitation and the tendency to imitate some things, rather than other things, and that the intelligence of the child supplements and controls the original primitive instinct. The business of the kindergartner or teacher is to see that the motor force of the impulse is not lost, nor the act hardened into habit in its crude state, but that the child's intelligence shall supersede and control.

Miss Blow[4] points out another type of programme which she calls the industrial. The type programme which she quotes is an

[4] Susan Blow, *Educational Issues in the Kindergarten*, pp. 238–80.

extreme one on the industrial side and not typical of the largest and most elastic of its kind. The significant things in the programme are a social ideal, and a psychological principle. The social ideal is that of the interdependence of people, in work, in service, or in festival. It is grounded in the principles which shape community life. It seeks to take the situation in which a child finds himself at home, on the street, in the playground, the garden, the shop, the fields, and by reviewing some of these experiences in play to enter as far as a little child can enter into their meaning. The psychological principle is that of the use of immediate experience through imitation and play, through participation, and through the observation which these forms of activity entail. The aim of this plan is not to induce prematurely the attitude of work, but to let the play cluster about the social activities as the child's play does normally and naturally. This principle can be elucidated further as a recognition of the fact that children seize upon activities of others as giving "copy" that is worth while. They engage in them instinctively and are equally interested in a circus the rush of the fire engine, store keeping, the building of a shelter, or a funeral. The effort is made by the kindergartner to select those themes that are freighted with individual and social meaning, from forms of work to festival celebrations. It is believed that a better quality of attention is secured, a more vital living interest, by following this plan. Nor is the child's representation all work by any means. It is a just criticism upon this programme if the making of real tools, utensils, or other articles becomes forced, if the real work engaged in takes precedence of play or if the make-believe loses its quality of choice and selection. If the aesthetic element is crowded out, then surely the values have lost balance. But this is not true of the best type of programme formed largely on social activities, and which I refuse to call an industrial programme. In these play themes dramatization takes first rank as a mode of entering into such situations as going to a fire, playing store, or any social function, such as making visits, or going to church. Next come play makings with kindergarten gifts, or with paper, clay, sand, or paint. If the making a toy thing, such as a little broom, a store window, a

fireman's cap, will enhance the meaning of the play, and if it can come within the scope of a child's constructive imagination, with no more of dictation, and no more highly organized material than he would get in the kindergarten folding paper or sewing card, then by all means let the article be made. It becomes the most potent kind of symbol of the real activity out of which it has grown and of which it is a part.

Nor do some household occupations fail of a happy use here and there. What more natural than that these five-year-old children should undertake some activities ordinarily classed as "work" and which grow out of their life together. They delight in brushing up the crumbs, the paper scraps, dusting the piano, washing the milk cups, and scrubbing the tables, provided these occupations are alternated so that each may take his turn at each kind of work. It is not work so much at first as it is play, but in either case it is not at all forced or un-childlike. Through the dusting and wiping he becomes acquainted with properties of sponge, cotton cloth, woolen, he loves to splash in the water and to manipulate the soap and the brush. The meaning of household work becomes his own in an intimate way beside which the consciousness of it brought home solely by such a story as "Charlotte and the Ten Dwarfs" becomes a pale and meager thing. If the story be *added* to this participation, it meets and adds charm to a genuine appreciation.

The alternation from actual participation to play representations of work contains no contradiction. The impulses to both are in a child's heart. He can go with the greatest satisfaction from helping to prepare something for luncheon to the play building of store or table with the greatest naturalness, and out of each kind of experience he gets a different and vital reaction. As an illustration of this simple play process, note the description that Froebel gives in his *Pedagogics of the Kindergarten*[5] of the way in which the mother plays with her child using the building blocks to follow out a little play of making the stove on which the soup is being prepared for the father's dinner, the table around which all are soon to sit, or again, the garden benches, and the

[5] Froebel, *Pedagogics of the Kindergarten*, pp. 178, 179.

summer house into which they must run to escape an impending rain storm. Here are sequences of meaning as well as form, natural, familiar, and vital, into which the children enter with ready response. Froebel recognized the joy which children take in the sharing the work of older people, and gives a strong emphasis to the learning process that goes on in such participation:

> My neighbor's son, scarcely three years old, tends his mother's goslings near my garden hedge. The space to which he is to confine the lively little creatures in their search for food is small. They escape from the little swain, who may have been busy in other ways, seeking food for his mind. The goslings get into the road, where they are exposed to injury. The mother sees this and calls out to the child to be careful. The little boy who, by the ever-renewed efforts of the goslings for freedom, probably had often been disturbed in his own pursuits, retorts, "Mother, you seem to think it not hard to tend goslings."
>
> Who can indicate the present and future developments which the child reaps from this part of the parent's work and which he might reap more abundantly if parents and attendants heeded the mother and made use of it later on in the instruction and training of their children?
>
> Behold here the little child of the gardener. He is weeding; the child wishes to help, and he teaches the little fellow to distinguish hemlock from parsley, to observe the differences in odor and brillancy of the leaves.
>
> There the forester's son accompanies his father to the clearing that at some previous time they together had sown. Everything looks green. The child sees only young pine plants; but the father teaches him to recognize cypress-spunge and to distinguish it from the pine plant by its different properties.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> In another place the child sees his father striking the hot iron, and is taught by the father that the heat makes the iron softer, and again as the father tries to push the heated rod through an opening through which before it passed easily that heat expands the iron.[6]

This kind of learning through sharing occupations cannot go on in our highly organized households as it did in the simple village life of rural Germany of Froebel's day. It is therefore the more necessary to provide occasions in kindergarten and school for the interest that it stimulates and the control it involves. Here children can take part in simple occupations which can

[6] Froebel, *Education of Man* (Appleton), pp. 84–86.

either be initiated by them or observed, shared, and continued by them.

In this scheme the child is the center, his budding interests are followed and the most fruitful selected for culture. As he lives a life with many points of contact so the kindergarten plan must include many phases of interest. The child's interest is fragmentary and his thinking is fragmentary, and yet he is seeking for wholeness, he is trying to fill in his *schema,* to dig out its essential meaning, and any plan which we pursue must follow his own method of pursuing this completeness. If all our hand occupations are merely disjointed exercises, having no relation to a purpose which, however fleeting and small, is *his* purpose, they have not achieved what he can really achieve for himself, namely, an explanation, implicit in his acts perhaps, but still an explanation of various phases of the moving world about him.

Nature has its place. In the garden we find a typical opportunity for gaining a set of related meanings in which children can play and yet really plant and tend. The insects that are on their plants, the earth worms in the soil of their plot claim unusual attention. The worms feed upon their cabbages, the aphis on their rose leaves, the bees suck honey from their flowers. The attempt to make the garden grow may not be a very successful one from the standpoint of results. No very reliable habits of work may be formed, and yet it is a play with point, it goes on from day to day with increasing interest, and the small by-products as are indicated above are the invaluable accompaniments that lend wholeness to the picture which he is gaining from day to day. Another typical theme in this kind of programme is found in the preparation for a festival such as Thanksgiving or Christmas.

Now, if this be open to the objection that it is developing a succession of topics, separate centers, as it were, I would answer, so does apperception proceed. A little child is non-resistant, open to all stimuli. Those attended to and acted upon become organizing centers for later experiences to tie to. He may have a dozen or five hundred "apperception centers." This is not mental disintegration but the progress toward integration. As

his experience widens and his attention grows in span these centers get into relation as inevitably as the raindrop-circles on the surface of the lake coalesce; nothing remains unrelated.

The *child* is the center. His organizing activity makes him not the passive, receptive vehicle into which experiences pour, sorting themselves out into different knowledge groups, but the creative as well as the assimulative individual. It is this creative principle which makes the "apperception centers," referred to above, vastly differ in meaning from the Herbartian signification.

Nor is this or any programme suited to the play period of growth unless it is elastic, giving room for experimental learning, which, it must be remembered, is learning through trial and error, failure and success.

When it is proposed to cause a programme, prepared by one person or set of people, to be adopted by others, we would say, "To what end?" and ask in the words of Dr. Dewey whether "any teacher can receive from another a statement of the methods by which his ends may be reached and not become hopelessly servile in his attitude." [7]

This paper has, by reason of its necessarily general nature, given no typical programme of the order which the fundamental principles to which we hold would demand. If space permits some illustrations may be given in succeeding numbers of the application of these principles in daily work for a given period.

[7] John Dewey, *Psychology and Social Practice*, The University of Chicago Press.

AMERICAN SCHOOLS AS SEEN BY A BELGIAN EDUCATOR[1]

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"Real life enters into the American school by doors and windows." This expresses the impression our schools make upon many foreigners. M. Buyse, who has charge of the industrial museum and school at Charleroi, province of Hainaut, Belgium, is a most appreciative student of what we are doing. He is so much delighted with what he finds here that in the course of seven hundred and fifty pages he raises scarcely a question and seems to consider practically all of our difficulties overcome. In a letter apart from the book he expresses the hope that we should "continue in the same progressive way and avoid, as much as possible, European influence which would disturb the admirable concordance between your systems and your national spirit."

One wishes that there was evidence of more discrimination in the work. There is not the evaluation of what we are doing that is found in Dr. Kuyper's *Volksschule und Lehrerbildung in den Vereinigten Staaten*, neither is there as clear a line between the theoretical discussions and the description of what is done. This does not mean that the report is not in many respects well made. There is a remarkable absence of misstatement and one can gain a better detailed view of some of our interests than is available in our own language. As much praise as is here given is especially valued coming from a leader in industrial education in Belgium. One of our best informed students of this important field, Professor Mary Schench Woolman, considers the work in Belgium most instructive for Americans to visit. It takes considerable experience in progressive education to enable a man to find in our schools all that M. Buyse finds there.

The seven divisions treat of: (1) elementary education:

[1] Omer Buyse, *Méthodes américaines d'education générale et technique.* Paris, M. Dunod & E. Pinat.

(2) secondary technical education; (3) industrial education; (4) trade schools; (5) education of backward races; (6) commercial education; (7) higher technical schools. There are seven hundred and ten illustrations from a wide range of subjects.

The recent reports of the National Society for Industrial Education will prove a boon to the industrious European student of American schools. He has availed himself usually of the monographs prepared for the Paris Exposition, but beyond that his task of gathering together what he needs from the mass of papers, reports, and pictures represents a great amount of labor. Our government reports have not been of the value in this respect that they should be. The new administration offers more hope in this direction.

In order to appreciate the significance of the material the reporter selects for presentation it is well to bear in mind the condition of affairs in the country from which he writes. We have few careful, connected accounts of the schools of the smaller countries of Europe. In Belgium I was impressed by an emphasis upon individual liberty which at first seemed promising. A prominent education official told me "We would not dare, in Belgium, to propose either compulsory education or compulsory military service." I learned, however, that the latter is non-compulsory only in the sense that when a man draws a lot calling for service he is excused if he can hire a substitute! The other non-compulsion is somewhat more genuine and its evidences are apparent. But this is true of France also. The latest report of our commissioner of education states that school attendance is one of the most serious questions in French primary schools. It will be found that in many other respects the schools of the two countries have much in common. M. Ribot in the noted report of the commission of 1898 says:

> The crisis is not then limited to our own country. But it is complicated in France with the ever-present contest between public and private instruction. This contest shows here a character seen nowhere else save in Belgium. Liberty of teaching has ended in France with a monopoly divided between the State and the Catholic church. Individual initiative is crushed. We do not have all the benefits of liberty, but we do have all the inconveniences, not to say perils, of liberty.

While these statements had reference to secondary education the problem of the relation of secondary and primary education is one even though one finds its unity in France often to consist of mutual hatred and distrust. Nowhere have I found more contempt by teachers of secondary schools for those trained for the (to them) purely utilitarian work of the lower schools than in France, and in that anomalous institution, the middle school, where teachers of the two trainings meet, the situation is often tragic. I never felt so near to the French Revolution as during an hour spent in a class in which boys were almost in revolt against a teacher of morals who had come up from the lower school. I understood the attitude of the boys better when I had talked more with teachers in the same school, trained from the standpoint of the privileged class. We are fortunate in having at last an adequate work on the French field by Professor Farrington, *The Public Primary-School System of France*. We need one which will state more adequately than has yet been done the larger problem.

In French writers on education there is a striking unanimity in condemning the lack of opportunity for initiative on the part of young people. In one of the French weeklies there are frequent extracts from the autobiographies of modern Frenchmen. Among these the same note is constantly struck. There is a recognition that what is wanted in life is not attainable without initiative and greater participation in processes than is now permitted. The difficulty, it seems to me, lies in the unwillingness of these men to pay for what they want. Processes like physical labor are to them necessary evils valuable only for what they make possible. This in itself is true in a sense, but there is a marked failure to recognize that flower and fruit and seed are no more ends in themselves than are root, stem, and leaf. Products cannot be isolated, even in appreciation, without a stoppage of circulation. One is reminded of Matthew Arnold's inclusion of the results of processes in the curriculum while he excludes the processes themselves. The direction of processes belongs to the higher class, but the performance of them is menial. A French teacher, who had been an engineer, said to me in reference to the

teaching of chemistry: "No, the students do not perform the experiment—a drawing serves just as well. Any servant can be trained to perform experiments—you might as well expect to educate a boy by teaching him to make a fire in a stove as to put iron in a test tube." I have even found it carried so far that boys in classes corresponding to our seventh grade, were taught merely to indicate mathematical operations and only carry them out when that labor was unavoidable. What Professor Palmer calls "the glory of the incomplete" is even less recognized in Europe than in America.

This is not the place to discuss the material in the last six divisions of M. Buyse's book. One needs to go through a work of this kind to see the larger social relations of the American school. It is only in this way that we see how wide a field our responsibilities are coming to include—as, for instance, the significance of the correspondence schools, the present status of the schooling of barbers in America, etc.

But the first section dealing with elementary education may be taken as representative of the whole. There is the usual expression of American faith in education; surprise at the extent of the reading habit, children's libraries, mother's congresses, parents' associations, the variety of programmes, general appreciation of initiative, etc. The European observer sees the constructive activities as the center of our elementary school life. Here however, as is too often the case, these are seen in the manual-training work to the neglect of other phases. One hundred and thirty pages are given to elucidating the four systems found among us. These are: (1) the Froebelian, leading into sloyd; (2) the technical, of Russian origin; (3) the social, as worked out under the influence of Professor Dewey, and (4) the artistic, as directed by Liberty Tadd of Philadelphia. The American art teacher is unprepared for the great vogue of the latter school in Europe. I found more direct evidence of the use of Mr. Tadd's work in a number of the countries on the Continent than of any other American. The only well-equipped room, as to blackboards, that I saw in the visiting of hundreds of schools was one fitted up to carry out the Tadd method. M. Buyse fails

to see how much more integrally related are Dr. Dewey's work and that of Froebel than are the latter and sloyd.

While the three chief cities studied are Boston, New York, and Chicago, it is evident that the writer received his focusing impressions in Boston and that he sees much of the whole field in the light of the impression given him that "the Athens of the United States" is "the laboratory in which European ideas upon education are received and passed through the crucible of American thought in order to adapt themselves to the life of the New World." If he had there come into relation with the work of Dr. Scott at the normal, as well as that of Mr. Larson at the sloyd school, he would have had a more adequate standard for organizing his material. However one may regard them, the recent criticisms of Dr. Dewey's work by Dr. Scott in *Social Education* and by Miss Blow in *Educational Issues of the Kindergarten* will, no doubt, aid foreign visitors to undertake a more definite evaluation of what has probably been the most important educational experiment in America. Most of these writers, like Mr. Math of Manchester University, have dealt with this material in a largely descriptive manner.

As has been stated before, it is from the standpoint of description that the present work under discussion is most valuable. The foreign reader will be able to use what is given as suggestion for his own work. It is intended evidently to serve this purpose. Even the illustrations show this, as in the case of modeling, where the exact position of the hands is pictured. But the meaning of the movements studied is by no means so evident. One is reminded by what is seen of the notebooks of city teachers, who frequent the exhibits of other schools, that the motives and movements are lost in materials and methods. The bibliographies given by M. Buyse are fairly well selected. It is unfortunate here, as elsewhere, that such a report, and especially the bibliographies, are not edited or at least proofread by an American, in order that proper names, titles, etc., which vary from French forms might be stated more intelligibly. The titles are representative although here, too, the method side is overemphasized, and some less significant works are consequently cited.

EDITORIAL NOTES

Moral Training in the Schools

The general interest in moral training in the schools is widening and deepening. The very important volumes on *Moral Instruction and Training in the Schools,* which are reviewed in the present number, reflect this interest most intelligently, in an international inquiry. There are other indications of this interest which are more striking if less enlightening. We refer to the systems of moral instruction which pass under the names of the "Fairchild and Brownlee Systems." These undertake to seize real moral situations in the experience of children, and by striking comment to educate the moral judgment. In the system which is identified with the name of Mr. Milton Fairchild, these situations are found to a large extent in sport or in the child's ambitions for success in later life. Photographs catch and vividly reproduce these crucial situations, and the comment of the lecturer aims to identify these highly exciting and absorbing situations with equally vivid moral judgments. The method has received wide approval and the host of names that cover the circulars imply that in the judgment of many of our clearest minded educators and thinkers a solution had been found for this problem of moral education in what have been termed these "moral nickel theaters." There can be no desire on the part of anyone to discourage an effort which certainly has abandoned the mere moral maxim, and attempts to make use of the child's own experience, to help him to form his own judgment, instead of trying to din the results of adult experience into the boy's mind in the form of ready-made judgments.

Novel Systems of Moral Instruction

Approval of the Fairchild System and its Aim

There is, however, an inadequacy in the presentation, which should be emphasized in the interest of the very purpose which has called out these schemes. This inadequacy lies in the fragmentary character of the situations which are seized by the lecturer and his camera. A situation in a baseball game must call out a whole social organization

The Inadequacy of the System

if it is to have the moral value desired. Why is it that American sport to so large an extent, even in our colleges, has led to lowering of morals instead of leading to a higher ethical level? In the English public schools and universities it is fair to claim a morally elevating influence for sport. In America this has not been the case. We have not succeeded and probably never will succeed in organizing the whole social life of the school on the basis of sport as is the case in England. When this is done the judgment of the school and its history and ambitions appear in the conduct of the boy.

Athletic Situations as Moral Situations in England and America

No really moral consciousness will be aroused until the school and its ideals speak in the conduct of the boy on the athletic field. In America the school and its ideals call for success, and it is questionable whether we can ever succeed in identifying the school tradition with the ethics of sport. Our school instructors who must remain the principal personages in the school community are not part of the school games. The presence and character of athletic coaches are sufficient evidence that the ideals of Rugby and Harrow cannot be reproduced in the American school.

But eminent English educational opinion deplores the lack of civic consciousness in the intellectual and moral atmosphere of the English school, and here it is possible to obtain an organized school consciousness which shall be moral and moralizing. In approaching this problem it is of the first importance to recognize that it is only as the school becomes organized as a social whole, and as the child recognizes his conduct as a reflection or formulation of that society, will it be possible to have any moral training in our schools. G. H. M.

Another Phase of Moral Consciousness, and the Condition of Moral Consciousness in the School

NOTES AND NEWS

The problem of school attendance is one of the fundamental problems of our educational situation. Superintendent D. C. Gile, of Marshfield, Wis., offers some interesting data in connection with the problem. The following tables were prepared in the Marshfield schools:

TABLE I

AVERAGE ATTENDANCE BY GRADES

	GRADE												
	Kg	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Boys	37	65	61	42	42	29	36	17	26	26	21	8	11
Girls	29	59	40	33	35	37	25	27	35	32	26	19	13
Total	66	124	101	75	77	66	61	44	61	58	47	27	24

In general the number of boys above Grade 6 is much less than it is below that grade. The boys outnumber the girls as far as Grade 6 but the girls outnumber the boys in grades beyond the sixth. The following table will show the relative numbers of boys and girls in school, by ages:

TABLE II

	AGES																
	Below 5	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Boys	12	27	37	53	36	32	23	32	26	36	34	38	18	13	2	0	0
Girls	9	24	36	30	31	30	28	32	29	39	40	24	20	18	7	4	1
Total	21	51	73	83	67	62	51	64	55	75	74	62	38	31	9	4	1

This table shows that the boys outnumber the girls up to nine years of age and that beyond this age the girls outnumber the boys except at age 15. Table I shows that in grades above the seventh a decided increase in numbers of both sexes is noticeable. This is due to the fact that parochial and rural schools send many of their pupils to the public schools after the eighth grade. Aside from this influx from parochial and rural schools, there is a decided falling off in the numbers of both sexes above the fifth grade, but the decrease is more marked among the boys than among the girls.

Is this falling off to be attributed to the demands upon the boys for help in the support of the family? Marshfield is not, to any great degree,

an industrial center. Hence, this reason does not satisfy. We may find some help by comparing averages of boys and girls by grades:

TABLE III

	Grade												
	Kg	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Boys	4.8	6.3	7.9	9.1	10.8	11.9	12.6	13.2	14.1	14.8	15.3	15.8	16.9
Girls	4.8	6.2	7.4	9.	10.3	11.5	11.9	13.2	13.7	14.8	15.6	16.5	17.9

It will be noted from this table that in the grades below the high school the average age of the boys is greater than that of the girls. This fact is reversed in the high school. In the grades it means that though the boys are possibly as able, yet they do not progress as rapidly as the girls. In the high school, the boys who have kept up with their grade remain to the end or nearly so; while the girls who have fallen behind their grade do not find it as profitable to go to work as to remain at school.

All this seems to indicate that the work of the grades is more attractive to, or more in accord with the needs of, the girl than the boy. The lagging, backward, quitting boy needs attention. He drops out of school after the sixth grade and becomes a floater. This is, of course, not merely a school question, but a general social problem, in which the parents should have a share.

The parents' side of this question is a rather uncertain field. There is a large amount of doubt, in its way quite natural, mixed with our current feelings toward popular education and the public school. An English school journal reports a mother who took her little boy away from the day school to which he had been sent, because he liked his lessons, and cried if he was kept at home. The mother said that "there must be something wrong" with such a topsy-turvy state of affairs. But, an American daily paper said recently, rather cynically, that "The boy who cries to go to school needs investigating." And, in the same general vein, a writer in a recent number of the *Boston Herald* in refuting some remarks made by that paper on the subject of truancy, said: "With the system now in operation in this city, with the help of twenty-three able and faithful truant officers, the teachers, and the police force of the city, nearly every child of school age is connected with some school and registered there. . . . . There are school districts where a real truant is as rare as a white blackbird."

In the Jefferson City (Mo.) schools the following directions are given to the teachers to be used in studying the health conditions of the individual children in the schools.

Facts to be ascertained:

1. Does the pupil habitually suffer from inflamed lids or eyes?

2. Does the pupil fail to read the majority of the letters in the XX line of the Snelling's Test Types with either eye?

3. Do the eyes and head habitually grow weary and painful after study?

4. Does the pupil appear to be cross-eyed?

5. Does the pupil complain of earache in either ear?

6. Does matter (pus) or foul odor proceed from either ear?

7. Does the pupil fail to hear an ordinary voice at 20 feet in a quiet room? Each ear should be tested by having the pupil hold his hand over first one ear and then the other. The pupil should close his eyes during the test.

8. Is the pupil frequently subject to "colds in the head"? Discharges from the nose and throat?

9. Is the pupil an habitual "mouth-breather"?

If an affirmative answer is returned to any of these questions the pupil is given a printed card of warning to be taken to the parents or guardians. A complete record of the whole transaction is kept.

Professor M. E. Sadler has recently been pressing a rather comprehensive programme upon the consideration of the English school world. It is worthy the attention of American educators, as well. He proposes: (1) to reduce the size of classes in all elementary schools; (2) to institute a competent system of medical inspection and care of children; (3) to provide more and better playground space in connection with the schools; (4) to raise the age limit for compulsory attendance; (5) to make provision for all the children, so that none need be put on half-time; (6) to attempt to provide special, adequate social care for all children through the critical period of adolescence; (7) and he is particularly interested in making thoughtful care for the quality of the coming generation a matter of social provision, by laying a statutory obligation upon all employers of the young, to allow all children to attend classes of some sort up to the age of seventeen. This last consideration lies close to the heart of his demands for a more comprehensive system of continuation schools, which shall be seriously accepted by the public, and for which all employers of boys and girls shall make allowance in their working schedules.

The State Educational Association of Pennsylvania is engaged in making a canvass of the teachers of the state for a larger membership. This association has been in existence for more than fifty years, yet, the president states, most of the teachers of the state seem to hold aloof and are unwilling to lend their influence to the organization. In an appeal to the teachers of the state some rather interesting data are given. For instance, it is reported that Connecticut enrols 90 per cent. of its teachers in the state association; Rhode Island, 88 per cent.; New Jersey, 65 per cent.; New Mexico, 50 per cent.; California, 27 per cent.; Idaho, 25 per cent.; Alabama, 18 per cent. Pennsylvania falls below these figures. Seeking for informa-

tion from other states, Alabama reports its state association "is decidedly the leading force in educational advancement;" California, that "its voice is very potent in legislation;" Florida, that "the school interests of the state cannot afford to be without such an association;" Kentucky, that "it is the greatest force in the state;" and so on.

It may not be out of place, in this connection, to ask whether Pennsylvania is not suffering from a serious weakening of the democratic ideal, in education, as in a great many other lines. There is, certainly, some connection between the apathy of the teaching forces of the state and that apathy in politics which has become the shame of the state. But, of course, Pennsylvania does not stand alone in these respects.

Syracuse (N. Y.) reports a very interesting effort along the line of industrial training. The Artisan School has been established by the manufacturers of Syracuse to furnish a place where boys can learn certain trades. The boys work seven and one-half hours a day at 8 cents an hour. They have, beside this, an hour of drawing, talks, shop mathematics, etc., and they are required to keep up notebooks covering all their work. The course covers fifteen months, and leads to a good degree of efficiency in the particular trades. It remains to be seen whether, on the one hand, the school will be able to succeed financially, and, on the other, whether such training will really meet the full demands of a democratic citizenship.

Special attention should be called to the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the N. E. A., which will be held in Chicago, February 23, 24, and 25. Beside the Department of Superintendence, the National Society for the Scientific Study of Education, the Society of College Teachers of Education, the National Committee on Agricultural Education, and the Conference of State Superintendents of Education, as well as the Educational Press Association, will meet at the same time and under the same general auspices as that of the Department of Superintendence. The preliminary programme promises meetings of unusual interest. The question of waste in school work, the problem of the delinquent pupil, industrial education, school hygiene, are among the questions to be discussed in the Department of Superintendence. There will be also the usual round-table discussions which are frequently of so much more importance than the papers presented in the programme. The Society of College Teachers of Education will discuss observation and practice work in university departments of education. The question is one that is peculiarly interesting to superintendents and teachers of elementary schools. Application to Mr. Irwin Shepard, Secretary of the N. E. A., Winona, Minn., will bring information regarding railroad rates, ticket conditions, and other detail.

BOOK REVIEWS

Moral Instruction and Training in the Schools. The Report of an International Inquiry. Edited by M. E. SADLER. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1908. In two volumes. Vol. I, The United Kingdom, pp. 596; Vol. II, Foreign and Colonial, pp. 396. With Index.

The influence of education upon conduct and character is the subject discussed in this book. Its chapters are the outcome of an inquiry undertaken with the purpose of gathering information as to the methods of moral instruction and training now in use in schools in different countries. They record the judgment of experienced teachers and others as to the efficacy of the various means by which schools may bear part in the task of quickening and defining moral ideals, and of strengthening their influence upon individual conduct and upon national life.

The materials here presented are, of course, very variable as to value. The points of view represent all stages, from that of the most progressive scientific students of education like Prof. Sadler, himself, and Prof. J. J. Findlay, with whose work we have become familiar through their contributions to American school journals, down to the most dogmatic and traditional representative of scholastic education which is still very much alive in certain parts of the world. But there is enough of value in the contributions that do have scientific interest to make the work, as a whole, a very valuable contribution to that larger consciousness of the essentially world-wide character of the problem of moral education.

In the first volume, dealing with the schools of The United Kingdom, attention may be called to the following discussions; Professor Rudolf Eucken discusses, illuminatingly, the "Problem of Moral Instruction;" Professor J. J. Findlay treats of "The Growth of Moral Ideas in Children," and Professor William James, President Hall, and M. Alfred Fouillee, the Bishop of Birmingham, Dr. Bernard Bosanquet, and Dr. Felix Adler contribute to a symposium on the question, "How can the Ethical Efficiency of Education be increased?" Professor James is the only one who really touches the question, and his contribution is short: "I should increase enormously the amount of manual or 'motor' training relatively to the book-work, and not let the latter predominate till the age of fifteen or sixteen."

There is one discussion in this volume which has a considerable value from the standpoint of the organization of the school. Mr. H. Bompas Smith, headmaster of King Edward VII's School, Lytham, contributes a long account of the corporate life of the English public school, which is interesting from the standpoint of the development of the class-morality, upon which English society rests. It is interesting to note, here, however, that some of the leaders of education in England are trying to find a way out of the group or class morality which their schools tend to foster; but most of them seem to have developed

no means beyond the method of the Herbartian pedagogy, and that does not seem to solve the problem.

Volume II deals with Colonial and Foreign materials. The French system of non-religious moral instruction is treated in several papers, and other countries receive lesser mention. Mr. Gustav Spiller, General Secretary of the International Union of Ethical Societies, contributes a study of moral training and instruction in the schools of Switzerland, under the title, "An Educational Democracy," in which he uses this sentence, which we in America, with our penchant for "democracy" may well ponder: "It has been assumed without reflection, that no one need be especially prepared for influencing the children morally, though scarcely any part of education requires so much conscious preparation."

The work of American schools is treated from the standpoint of the Ethical Culture School, by Mr. Chubb; the State Normal School, by Principal Baldwin, of the Hyannis Normal School; and from the standpoint of the American school child, by Principal Burke, of the Teachers' Training School, at Albany. Mr. Burke describes the type of the "George Junior Republic," that general retreat for all who would make our American school life "democratic." All in all, the American materials in the book are not very satisfactory.

Finally, we may call attention to a fact that will strike many as peculiar. The western world has been regarding the Japanese as a people who have taken over our western material equipment without caring for our western ideals of culture. Of course, we had our eyes opened somewhat by the medical and surgical work in the Japanese armies during the Russian war. But we shall soon be called upon to wonder still more; for Japan is rapidly taking the lead among nations devoted to education, and to moral education. The Imperial Rescript on Education, of 1890, is the foundation of all Japanese education. Baron Kikuchi gives a very readable account of the spirit of that rescript and the education that has grown up about it. It would be worth the while of anyone interested in education, and in the larger problems of social and international relationships, to read this account and come to an appreciation of the way in which Japan has seriously attacked the larger problems of moral advance.

This book will shortly be supplemented by the reports of the International Moral Congress: the whole gives us a larger comprehension of the real problem of moral education: it is not a problem of individual conduct, in the narrower sense; it is a problem of the realization and acceptance of social relationships, and these social relationships are now seen to be world-wide. From this point of view this collection of materials stands alone today.

J. K. HART

History in the Elementary School. By HENRY JOHNSON, professor of History, Teachers College, Columbia University. New York: *Teachers College Record,* Novemer, 1908. Pp. 60.

Professor Henry Johnson has given us a work of much more than ordinary importance in his recently published study on *History in the Elementary School.* The need of a good discussion of this subject has long been felt and teachers in general will be delighted. It is one of a series of articles by the heads of departments in Teachers College who are actively in charge of the work

done in the practice school, the Horace Mann schools. Professor Johnson is wonderfully well equipped to write such a study. He was an unusually enthusiastic and successful teacher of history in the high school, as the writer well remembers from the happy days spent in his classes, and has had exceptional opportunities for studying the problem later, as superintendent of schools, normal-school instructor, and, at the present time, in the well-equipped Teachers College institution.

The publication of such articles is in itself an encouraging sign of progress in educational work today. All realize the need of having more such centers as the one established at Columbia, among the universities, to provide a large number of opportunities for carrying on such work. We may safely say that the need of trained experts in education has never been felt as at present. We are in a period of transition educationally with many new things pressing for attention. It is imperatively necessary to decide as to their values wisely after subjecting each conception to the most discriminating criticism.

It is evident that Professor Johnson has studied the problem of history work in the elementary school. He makes clear at the very outset that he believes history deserves the place it now occupies, but he as quickly distinguishes between that which is, and that which should be. His ideal of the history for the elementary school is the history as conceived by the historians and not the history of made-over histories, nor the masquerading of myths, romances, and the like, as history. He opposes the idea advocated by the Chicago teacher that, "an ideal history for children would be history written by a child." He opposes also as unnecessary bringing history "down to the child's effortless understanding."

He confesses that at present even historians differ as to the content of elementary school history. In view of this fact it is not to be thought strange that superintendents and others responsible for courses of study in history do wander and lose themselves among a maze of paths, for we all know that in the great majority of cases they are not trained in historical work and should not presume to speak authoritatively about the matter. When he urges that they shall spend less time in portraying the difficulties involved in adapting serious history to the comprehension of the children of the elementary school, and more time in studying the field and arranging rational courses and methods of instruction that will lead the child to get something true and definite, he is altogether to be commended.

Perhaps the most direct profit that comes to one who reads this admirable article lies in his statement of the problem involved in history teaching: Does serious history, the history of trained historians, furnish material for history in the elementary schools? He does not in the least minimize the difficulties involved and which all of us agree do exist. There are adults who try to understand serious history, and who cannot, due to a lack of the development of historical-mindedness. He goes beyond, simply enumerating the difficulties by applying the knowledge of these difficulties in determining what aspects of the past can best be presented to and understood by the child. In this he gives the best and most illuminating treatment of the subject that has recently appeared. The principles he lays down are refreshingly unlike those in so many of the present-day pedagogical studies, in that they smack of actual test and practice.

In general he would aim for concreteness and vividness in the portrayal of the material background of the past; cleave to the characteristic and not the sensational of the past; utilize local history as far as possible; make full use of objective aids; and allow only historians of known authority to supply the summaries that will be necessary from time to time.

These principles he fully elaborates. To emphasize concreteness in treatment he uses two illustrations very effectively: the cotton industry in the South before the Civil War, and the slave power. The study also contains an account of the Puritans in America. These three illustrations offer extremely valuable material to any teacher. They show that history can be made a thinking exercise as well as merely a learning exercise. That it is not done now, and that much of the work is indefinite he shows aptly in citing the following incident: A little girl was once asked if she could tell what sort of a looking man Alexander the Great was. "Why, no," said she, "I thought he was just one of those historical characters." There would be fewer of such historical characters, we believe, if Professor Johnson's admirable study were pondered by the teachers generally.

Other chapters deal with: "History as Determined by Textbooks for the Upper Grades," "Relation of Elementary History to the Ques'ion of How Historical Facts Are Established," "Use of Histories," "Problem of Finding What Is Significant in History," and "The Question of Educational Aims and Values." There is also a short list of books suited to the needs of teachers and pupils.

The severe indictment against the majority of the present-day textbooks in history is that they are general, vague, and empty. He urges that the textbook for the average elementary school should be a repository of concrete examples.

The advantages of using source material in the elementary school are presented strongly by Professor Johnson. He urges that the pupils earn the facts of history instead of merely learning them; that this will result in making deeper impressions than merely reading answers; in remembering important facts longer and more definitely; and, when managed by a skilful teacher, in greater accuracy. The cry against this form of history work in occasional exercises will subside when they are used as he suggests.

Questions as to the availability of using some of the histories mentioned by Professor Johnson in the grades that he suggests will come to the minds of many teachers who lack neither "conviction" nor "scholarship." Can Parkman's works be intelligently and understandingly read by a sixth grade? Will Bradford's *Plymouth Plantation* drive other accounts from the field in the seventh? We should have more extensive data on this matter from the average schools.

The study is brought to a close with a brief discussion of the educational aims and values in history for the elementary school. Professor Johnson maintains the attitude shown in the entire discussion of refusing to enter a controversy where at the present time mere opinions held sway and where there is no absolute data to discuss. There must be further study and investigation on this point. It is not altogether unwise, however, to follow his idea, which is to expose the children to serious history and to note the results.

No one can read this scholarly discussion without being abundantly re-

warded. Its thoughtfulness invites you to think; its originality is refreshing; its concreteness is helpful. There is in every paragraph the directing power of a man earnest to obtain results that measure up to the importance of the subject, and we may not say that he has not, at least in part, succeeded.

CONRAD G. SELVIG

STEVENS SEMINARY
GLENCOE, MINN.

The Pig Brother and Other Fables and Stories. By LAURA E. RICHARDS. Little, Brown & Co., 1908. Pp. 142.

This book is sent out as supplementary reading for the fourth school year. There are one or two charming poems in this collection, but the book is really a book of modern and original fables. The morals are not attached at the close of each fable as in the ancient models, but they are quite as evident as they would be if so analyzed out of the text. The story element in them is sufficient to hold interest, but it is open to question whether the moral is not so obvious as to be somewhat irritating to the average ten-year-old child. The style is good; the subtle points and turns of thought appeal to the adult much as do the social hits that his knowing countrymen find in the fairy tales of Hans Christian Andersen.

BERTHA PAYNE

BOOKS RECEIVED

AMERICAN BOOK COMPANY, NEW YORK

The Eleanor Smith Music Course (4 vols.). By ELEANOR SMITH. Cloth. Book I, 112 pp., 25 cents; Book II, 145 pp., 30 cents; Book III, 192 pp., 40 cents; Book IV, 255 pp., 50 cents.

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Librarian, School of Education, The University of Chicago

BROENE, J. Nietzsche's educational ideas and ideals. Educa. R. 37:55–70. (Ja. '09.)

BROWN, ELMER ELLSWORTH. Unifying influence of industrial art. Journ. of Educa. 68:703–5. (Ja. '09.)

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[1] *Abbreviations.*—Col. Univ. Q., Columbia University Quarterly; Educa. R., Educational Review; El. School T., Elementary School Teacher; Harp. W., Harper's Weekly; Journ. of Educa., Journal of Education; Lib. Journ., Library Journal; Out., Outlook; Pedagog. Sem., Pedagogical Seminary; Pop. Sci. Mo., Popular Science Monthly; Psycholog. Clinic, Psychological Clinic; Relig. Educa., Religious Education; South. Educa. R., Southern Educational Review.

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